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ABSTRACT

This monograph examines six periods in the history of teaching. The first section describes the period from 1776-1823 as a time when teaching was not the career choice of educated people. A case history of a New England school teacher is included in this section. The second section pictures the period 1820-60 as the time when teacher preparation schools and teacher associations began to appear. A case history is also presented in this section of a normal school student. The third section, covering 1860-1920, states that teachers were generally better educated during this period than previously. A more thorough knowledge of subject areas was required of those teaching high school students, and some teachers attended new departments of education in universities. Modernization of instruction is said to have developed in this period. A case study is included in this section of a teacher on an Indian reservation. The fourth section describes the change in status of teaching which occurred during 1920-45 from a part-time, seasonal occupation to a full-time occupation staffed by women rather than men. It is stated that a conflict developed during this period between academic and professional orientations of teaching programs. Also during this period, the public became concerned with illiteracy and the education of immigrants, blacks, and rural people. The period 1945-75 is described in section five as a time which included burgeoning power for teachers unions, a knowledge explosion, and social upheavals. Finally, in looking at the teacher of 1976, the three characteristics by which competent teachers are identified are discussed: teacher personality, student achievement, and teacher behaviors. This last section states that future teachers will have better skills and resources and will be better able to fulfill the specific needs of their students. (CD)

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THE AMERICAN TEACHER: 1776-1976

Johanna Lemlech and
Merle B. Marks

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FASTBACK 76

BICENTENNIAL SERIES

Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation

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THE AMERICAN TEACHER: 1776-1976

By Johanna Lemlech and Merle B. Marks

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FOREWORD

The generally secure American teacher of our era has come a long way from the near-tragic "trail of cheapness" which the English educator, E. B. Castle, has condemned as the greatest handicap and limitation in the development of good schooling throughout the history of the West. This condition can be traced (all the way) back to shortsighted leaders and parents in ancient Greece where slaves (pedagogues) were often accepted as qualified teachers. But the currently improved conditions have only recently gained widespread acceptance in their common appearance. As late as the 1930s, amazingly restrictive contracts still controlled the social life of teachers, attempted to censor their personal habits, and still paid them but a pittance. Less than a half-century ago many mentors must have wondered how much better off they were than their colonial forebearers who were paid in tobacco or dried fish, boarded in their pupils' attics, and who served without pay as school janitors and church choir leaders.

Of course, changes occurred during the intervening years; women entered the field, normal schools and teacher training programs developed, and professional standards were set. But the barrenness of the tangible rewards remained. If only America's citizens had been brought much earlier to recognize the value and import of a well-prepared teacher! For almost two centuries our nation was dependent upon a cadre of instructors largely comprised of personally concerned and educationally motivated volunteers, but which included many who merely drifted into the position of teacher. These early instructors far outperformed any possible expectations; they succeeded in promoting learning for millions, set models of worthy behavior. Our hats must come off to those stalwarts who, though poorly prepared and in spite of meager support, did school America.

This fastback provides a variety of examples and insights into the story of our teachers, in part depressing, yet at the same time inspiring.

Richard E. Gross
Stanford, California

INTRODUCTION

In this year of the bicentennial it is particularly appropriate for teachers to reacquaint themselves with their historical colleagues. This fastback examines five historical time periods beginning with 1776 in an effort to determine: Who is the American teacher? How has the teacher served society?

1776-1823: NATIONALISM

Early Teaching in a New England Country School

Ebb Stewart, a fictional character typical of early New England schoolmasters, received an elementary education in the Massachusetts common schools toward the end of the 18th century. He was an apt pupil, and though teaching was not his choice of an occupation, he realized that he could supplement his farming earnings with winter teaching. To qualify as a schoolmaster, Stewart attended an academy where he studied English grammar, arithmetic, algebra, geography, surveying, and rhetoric. After two years at the academy he was considered ready to teach.

Ebb answered an advertisement which read NOTICE: QUALIFIED SCHOOLMASTER WANTED. GOOD WAGES, GOOD TREATMENT. and was hired as a schoolmaster. The school was located in a neighboring village and Ebb decided to board around rather than travel back and forth from his home. He signed his contract, which stipulated:

- Must teach 25 students for 80 days.
- The school term will begin the first week after Thanksgiving.
- Must be honest and of high moral character.
- Each child must be taught as much as he is capable of learning.
- At the end of the term a report identifying student progress in each subject must be submitted to the trustee.

One of Stewart's first tasks was to proportion the number of students in each family with the number of school days in the winter term to calculate how many days each family would be

responsible for providing food and lodging for him. The school trustees would be required to provide a small salary and his school books.

Stewart knew that his first task as schoolmaster was to prove himself to his students, so on the first day of the winter term he arrived early to ready himself and the schoolhouse. Although firewood was provided by the trustees, it was not chopped into logs for the schoolhouse fireplace. Stewart was required to prepare the logs and start the fire. He decided to assign this task to one of the big boys each day and require the assigned lad to arrive early each morning to chop enough wood to last the entire school day. If hot coals from the previous day were unavailable, it would be the boy's responsibility to visit a neighbor to secure some hot coals to prepare the fire.

The schoolhouse was typical of late 18th and early 19th century one-room schools, with benches and desks arranged on three sides. On one wall was a row of pegs for the children's clothing, and a bench held the dinner baskets. The desk and bench for the schoolmaster was in the front center of the room. Older students had desks with benches at the back, while the younger scholars, the abecedarians, sat on benches without the benefit of a desk toward the middle of the room.

Stewart checked his own desk for supplies. It contained his textbooks, quills, a ruler, and behind the desk were a number of switches to help him maintain order. He sat at his desk and surveyed his school, imagining what his pupils would be like, then planned his school day.

In his mind he outlined his first school day.

9:00 Courtesy
9:05 Reading
10:30 Girls' Recess
10:35 Boys' Recess
10:40 Reading
11:00-12:00 Spelling and Writing
12:00-1:00 Dinner and Play
1:00-2:00 Arithmetic
2:00 Girls' Recess
2:05 Boys' Recess
2:10-2:30 Geography
2:30-3:00 Language Study

Stewart's textbooks were the very newest of American school books, and he was pleased that he would not be required to use any of the old books from England. His reader and speller would be Noah Webster's blue-backed *American Spelling Book*, published in 1783. The book contained moral lessons and fables, standardized pronunciation of words to be used for spelling, and American historical and geographical names. For arithmetic, Stewart had Nicholas Pike's *Arithmetic*, published in 1788. The book was intended for the exclusive use of the schoolmaster and was not available for the young scholars. For the study of grammar, he would have the use of Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1795). Geography would be taught from Jedediah Morse's *Elements of Geography* (1795). This book of 144 pages contained only two maps and no other illustrations. With these four books, Ebb Stewart was expected to conduct school.

The children's tools included a homemade notebook called a "copy book" constructed of unlined paper sewed into a cover of newspaper or brown paper. Each child also had a ruler and a plummet, which was a homemade lead pencil. The children were required to bring a quill pen and ink to school.

Stewart's major task that first day of school was to establish a system of order and to teach the children the rules for their conduct while at school. It was entirely possible that before the day was over he would have to fight one of the older boys to prove his "qualifications" for teaching.

Stewart expected to use the same methods to teach as he had experienced in his own common school days. First he taught the alphabet, calling each scholar to the front of the room and pointing to words in the speller. He had the students read the days of the week and names of the states as well as practice reading Roman and Arabic figures. The children learned to spell two-letter words, then three, and so on. At the same time he taught pronunciation.

For arithmetic Stewart stated problems and had the children copy them on slates; then he examined the children's slates and questioned each of them. Thus he proceeded through the school day, using a questioning technique directed to each child individually. He maintained a record of each child's progress for inclusion in his report to the school trustees at the end of the winter term.

At the close of the term, Ebb Stewart returned to his farm, and the teaching position was filled by a woman who taught the summer term. Warren Burton, New England Unitarian minister and teacher, wrote a description in 1833 of one of his own district school summer term teachers, Miss Mary Smith. She was 19 years old with only a common school education and her major task was to teach the ABCs. Burton was impressed with Mary Smith because she did not need hickory sticks behind her desk. Instead she used constant encouragement and disciplined the young scholars with a reproachful look. "A caution from her was as effectual as would be a frown, and indeed a blow, from many others," Burton said. "At least, it was so with me. She used to resort to various severities with the refractory and idle, and in one instance she used the ferule; but we all knew, and the culprit knew, that it was well deserved."

Mary Smith's teaching method was similar to Ebb Stewart's, with one noticeable exception. Since the very young scholars often came to school without shoes during the summer months, Miss Smith taught the children ciphering using their toes as well as their fingers. The older boys seldom attended during the summer term because they were needed on the farms.

The young scholars usually addressed their summer term teacher as "Marm" and the school day began with a lesson on manners. Many of the schoolmarms taught sewing along with the ABCs. The schoolmarm was paid $1 to $1.75 a week for the summer term.

The Old Field Schools of the South

Similar in structure and environment to the "weather-boarded box" style schoolhouses of New England were the old field schools of the South. These southern schoolhouses were located on fallow fields. Many teachers were local clergymen supplementing their salaries. Some of the teachers were licensed to teach in the prerevolutionary days by the Bishop of London or the colonial governor.

Zachary Jackson, a prototype teacher in Georgia, boarded around and received a small pittance for each student, paid by local farmers. The trustees of Jackson's school were required to furnish cut firewood and fresh water, which was delivered in

buckets each morning. Jackson was proud of his schoolhouse, which he referred to as an "academy," where he taught the required reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic. Although teaching methods did not differ greatly from those used in New England, it was generally thought that southern teachers were more harsh and strict than their New England counterparts.

While scant information is available about education of blacks in the period following the Revolution, the literature does reveal one John Chavis, a licensed black Presbyterian preacher and teacher in Lexington, Virginia, during the early days of the Republic. Historians believe he had attended Princeton University, and in 1808 he opened his own school in Raleigh, North Carolina, to educate both white and black students after sundown until ten p.m. He charged $2.50 a quarter for a white child and $1.75 a quarter for a black child, requiring that the money be paid in advance. Chavis certified that he would give attention to the child's education and morals. The school was apparently in operation for many years, because in 1830 Chavis was commended by the editor of the *Raleigh Register* for the behavior and scholarship of his students. The instructor was credited with an orderly, well-regulated school and diligent instruction.

A school for black students was established in Boston in 1820, and in the District of Columbia three former slaves, George Bell, Nicholas Franklin, and Moses Liverpool, built a school in 1807. A Negro priest, Peter Williams, conducted a school in New York in 1810 as a part of his parish duties, while in Philadelphia John Trumbull taught a school for "people of color."

Nationalism and Education

American nationalism, characterized as a combination of individualism and democracy, apparently influenced the character of the school, the curriculum, teaching materials, and most particularly, the American teacher. Americans, concerned with problems of growth and change, displayed remarkable lack of concern about who should teach. Ministers, servants, and misfits were typical teachers. Teaching was extremely nonselective during the nationalistic phase, and newspapers of the period suggest that teachers were noted for their incapacity for other types of employment. Many teachers were indentured servants who occupied

their spare hours performing chores such as grave digging, leading the church choir, planting crops, or conducting wedding and funeral services. Teaching was not considered a career choice, and the practice of moonlighting can be traced directly to the nationalistic period of American history.

The documentary record of teachers during the nationalistic period clearly indicates that teaching was not a career choice. However, certain issues and contributions that influenced later instructional practices and teacher preparation emerged. These included:

—Teacher contracts specified that children should be taught as much as they were capable of learning and that the teacher must identify student progress in each subject field.

—The teacher's moral character became a condition of qualification for teaching.

—American textbooks emerged, patterned after the English versions but omitting religious dogma.

—Children's materials were made: notebooks, quills, readers.

—Teacher preparation began to include more than a common school education.

—Teaching methods focused on individualization, questioning of students, and listening to lessons.

—Teacher managerial skills related to school organization, school environment, and student discipline became important.

—The practice of trustees furnishing textbooks was initiated.

1820–1860: AWAKENING AND CREATIVITY IN EDUCATION

City life was restricted to 4.9 percent of the population in 1820, but as cities grew, manufacturing increased and industry transformed the way of life from an agricultural and pioneer society to a more industrialized society. The extension of male suffrage in all states and the election of Jackson in 1828 emphasized the necessity of education for both rich and poor. Immigrant groups, workers, and farm laborers had been neglected by schools; group conflict in the 1830s was imminent. Horace Mann and other newly emerging educational leaders advocated a "common" school for all classes. Political leaders espoused tax-supported schools to meet growing public demands for free and general education.

The free public school movement engendered the need for more teachers, and educational leaders responded to the need, motivated to better prepare teachers for teaching. Samuel R. Hall in 1823 established a private school in Concord, Vermont, for the preparation of teachers, based upon a common school education. In addition, Hall offered a review of common school subjects, additional mathematics, chemistry, natural and moral philosophy, logic, astronomy, and something he called the "art of teaching." His students observed classes and had the opportunity of practice teaching during the winter term in rural schools. Hall taught the organization and management of a school. As interest in his school grew, he organized his lecture notes and wrote the first professional textbook, *Lectures on Schoolteaching*, in 1829.

Philosophic debate in higher education accompanied the common school and "normal" school movement, many college teach-

ers then, as now, being committed to liberal education and believing that vocational training for teachers was unnecessary. Secondary schooling was presumed sufficient education for the common school teacher, but leaders like Horace Mann were convinced that secondary schools could not prepare the number of teachers needed nor offer the "technical" training essential for teaching. In 1839 Mann established the first public normal school in Massachusetts.

At Washington College in Virginia President Henry Ruffner lent support to the normal school movement in an address in October, 1841, in which he discussed teachers and teaching. Ruffner identified "indispensable qualifications for the office of schoolmaster":

—Unblemished moral character
—Competent scholarship in the elementary learnings including orthography, reading, penmanship, grammar, arithmetic, bookkeeping, rhetoric, composition, geography, history of the United States, general history, the Virginia and federal constitutions, and several sciences
—Aptness to teach without harshness
—Habits of regularity and industry

Ruffner suggested that vocal music be introduced in the curriculum of schools "to sweeten" the students' daily studies. He also advocated granting funds to young men to attend a college or academy to prepare for teaching. However, he counseled that the recipient must promise to serve the state for a number of years, dependent upon the amount of aid he had received. Ruffner outlined a course of study for the training of teachers that would be rigorous enough to command the respect of their students and induce individuals of talent to accept teaching as a permanent profession. Finally, Ruffner warned that schoolteaching was too humble and "too little lucrative."

Development of the Normal School

Mary Swift attended the first state normal school in Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839, at the age of seventeen. She recorded her experiences in a journal and described the course of study, which included philosophy, physiology, political economy, history, pro-

nunciation, orthography, music, and reading from Abbott's *The Teacher* ". . . on the subject of making the lessons which we attempt to learn familiar."

Swift also described the teaching methodology used by the principal, Cyrus Peirce, who initiated role-playing in teacher education: "Accordingly he gave to me the charge of the recitation," Swift said. "The feeling caused by asking the first question tended rather to excite my risibles, but feeling the necessity of sobriety—I was enabled to play the teacher for a short time. I think that he can judge very little about our idea of teaching from the example which we give him in hearing a recitation, for the manner in which it is carried on depends very much upon the interest felt by the teacher in the scholars and in their study."

Peirce's students also practiced reading and abstracting pertinent information, then reading their abstract to others. His students contrasted this method with formal recitation.

Once a week Peirce lectured on the art of teaching. Swift transcribed one lecture, titled "The Motives, Qualifications, and Responsibilities of a Teacher," which included the motive of doing good and interesting the scholars; the qualifications of good health, patience, mildness, firmness, self-control, and a well-balanced mind free from eccentricities; and a moral responsibility.

"The knowledge that you are accountable to a being superior to man," Peirce said, "sustains you. Teachers should be acquainted with their difficulties, and know how to surmount them. . . . All rules should be made so that the pupils can see they are for their good, and the reasons for making them should be explained."

Peirce recorded in a letter to Henry Barnard his motives as he directed the normal school. "It would be my aim," Peirce said, "to make better teachers for the common schools . . . teachers who would understand, and do their business better: teachers who should know more of the nature of children, of youthful developments, more of the subjects to be taught, and more of the true methods of teaching; who would teach more philosophically, more in harmony with the natural development of the young mind, with a truer regard to the order and connection in which the different branches of knowledge should be presented to it, and, of course, more successfully."

Peirce believed that some teachers were good and some excellent schools were operating, but that most teachers taught too

few subjects, did not understand the nature of children, did not understand the subjects they taught, and did not possess skills in the art of teaching or managing a school. He thought that most teachers did learn through the act of teaching, but that it was often a painful experience for both teacher and students. He preferred preparation and practice to assure success.

Peirce, who accepted "principles of education," said, "we must begin with what is simple and known, and go on by easy steps to what is complex and unknown; that for true progress and lasting results, it is better for the attention to be concentrated on a few studies, and for a considerable time, then to be divided among many, changing from one to another at short intervals." Peirce wanted teachers to recognize the importance of curiosity and motivation and that learning in the classroom should serve the interests of real life. He used four strategies at the normal school to teach the prospective teacher: lectures; modeling of appropriate teaching procedures, peer teaching, supervised by Peirce; and teaching in the model school, practicing skills and school management devices.

In the South, Braxton Craven, founder of Trinity College, which later became Duke University, described in 1849 what ought to be in North Carolina Schools. Braxton identified the proper school environment and furnishings, stating that every school should be equipped with axes, water buckets, a shovel, a blackboard, a United States map, a dictionary, a bell, and Holbrook's apparatus, which he expected would cost about $20. He believed that the schools should be uniform and standardized in attendance, school rules, daily program, and daily schedule.

Braxton delineated the teacher's manner of teaching, wanting schools to be silent except for the teacher and the scholar who was reciting. He believed that teachers should exercise greater care in teaching reading and in teaching the "stops and tones" so that students did not pick up improper habits.

Braxton thought teachers should use moral influence to affect student obedience. However, if that failed, the rod should be used to maintain authority. Generally, he believed that teachers resorted to the rod too frequently: "We believe the rod is, at present, used with but little discretion and by far too often."

Concerning the qualifications of teachers, Braxton said, "None who indulge in any of the grosser vices should by any means

be allowed to teach; such as swearers, drunkards, gamblers." He anticipated that teachers would be certified and that certificates would have to be renewed every two years to raise scholarship standards. Teacher candidates would be examined in pronunciation, spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and grammar. Braxton suggested, "Female teachers should be encouraged; their services are much needed."

In other southern states, historical papers revealed that in Virginia in 1843 it was recognized that only qualified persons should be allowed to teach, and a school for teachers was proposed. The new state of Texas in 1846 in typical fashion had that it was essential to have teachers prepared in Texas institutions and emphasized the need to develop teachers' departments in all Texas colleges.

By 1860 twelve state teacher preparatory schools existed in the United States, but the majority of teachers did not attend them. Instead, they were graduates of the academies, high schools, or had only a common school education. Teachers were often subjected to short personal examinations by the trustees of a school district in place of professional training and certification. Only the preparatory institutions granted certificates. Teachers negotiated individually for contracts directly with the trustees of a district as they sought a teaching position.

Before 1850 about fifty-five schools existed in California under Spanish and Mexican government rule. The municipal government or ayuntamiento examined prospective teachers and prepared a list for appointment by the governor. Schools, located from San Diego in the south to Sonoma in the north, taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and Spanish grammar. Some of the private schools also taught foreign languages (French, German, and Latin) as well as philosophy and bookkeeping. The schoolmasters in these schools received $40 monthly, considerably better than their counterparts in Texas or Florida.

During the early gold rush period the ayuntamiento established a school in Los Angeles that was taught by Francisco Bustamente. Bustamente had been a soldier with no formal preparation for teaching, but he agreed to teach the first three lessons: script, orthography, and morals. He taught his classes in Spanish. Another pioneer school was conducted in the San Bernardino Valley by Miguel Ochoa. The school was in the Mexican settlement

of La Placita and Ochoa, where the Mexican students were taught in Spanish.

In Texas teachers' contracts guaranteed room, board, fuel for the school, and $1.50 a month for each scholar, which was to be paid in part in cattle. In Florida, teacher John W. Mixson received a contract to teach for two months. His compensation included $1 a month for each student payable in corn pork or bacon at the market value. Women teachers, who usually taught only the summer term, did not do as well financially as their male colleagues.

Teacher Institutes and Associations Appear

Although teacher preparation occurred sporadically, teachers themselves were beginning to find ways to further their own education. State teaching institutes were arranged once or twice a year to demonstrate teaching problems and skills. Henry Barnard introduced the first institute in Connecticut in 1839. By 1860 fifteen states used the institute system to enhance teacher education. At the institutes the teachers were introduced to Hall's *Lectures on Schoolkeeping*, David Page's *Theory and Practice of Teaching* (1847), and Abbott's *The Teacher* (1833).

As teachers met in conventions and discussed teaching problems, associations developed, and professional organizations began. At first these associations were informal, but by 1845 formal state organizations existed in New York, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island. The National Teachers Association, which later became the NEA, was organized in Philadelphia in August 1857. The Association was formed by and for teachers, and its stated purpose was "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." Evidence that the Association was attractive to teachers was found in a *Chicago Times* article, which criticized Yankee schoolmarms for attending the NEA convention in 1863.

By 1860 most elementary school teachers were inculcating basic skills and geography, grammar, composition, bookkeeping, and United States history. Teaching methods had changed only slightly, with some teachers in city schools using the monitorial system. Most teachers relied on drills, memorization, and oral

recitation. Sums were learned by rule in arithmetic. Spelling bees and reading contests were common, and students were taught to diagram sentences as they studied grammar. The classrooms changed as benches were replaced with slanted desks and many city school classrooms were large enough to seat fifty or fifty-five students.

State testing began in Boston in 1845, when students were subjected to an examination in history, geography, arithmetic, grammar, philosophy, and astronomy. Cubberly reported that the examination was repeated in 1919 with eighth-grade students, and he concluded that the children of 1919 "tend to make lower scores on pure memory and abstract-skill questions, and higher scores on thought and meaningful questions."

1860-1920: A PERIOD OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The period ending with the Civil War concluded with Americans concerned that their schools were focusing on "superficial education." The new era was initiated with some concern for educating the blacks. The headlines also revealed problems and strains related to teaching reading, brutality in the schools, technical training for boys, education for girls and Indians, and the Irish-Catholic/Yankee-Protestant race problems in Boston.

What Was the American Teacher Doing?

Professor Thomas Woody interviewed retired teacher D. S. Domer, who described the teaching process of his own childhood years, the 1870s: "Little pedagogy and less psychology were used," he said. "A recitation—geography, for example, covering the United States, its location, extent, and development—was conducted as follows: The lesson was assigned; questions, numbering often twenty or thirty, came at the end of the chapter. If the class had ten pupils, it was easy for us to learn the lesson. The pupil at the head of the class learned No. 1, the next one No. 2, and so on to the tenth. . . . Each had his question and answer well studied, and a perfect recitation could be recorded. It seems not to have occurred to the teacher to vary the order of the recitation. Routine dominated the method. . . . That was the day of formal teaching, variations were avoided, originality was frowned upon. Promiscuous asking of questions was taboo; the child had the right to think; he was to do just what the teacher said."

Domer also explained that neither a grading system nor a promotion system existed. Students were assigned to a textbook and stayed with the text until they completed it and the teacher considered the student's performance perfect. Sometimes the student would read the same book several years in a row to reach perfection.

Domer prepared to be a teacher by studying under the direction of a cousin. He studied the common subjects and recited pedagogy. He was tutored for the county teacher's examination, which was an individual oral examination conducted by the county superintendent. Domer was tested in mental arithmetic and other common subjects of study. The teacher candidates would wait until the end of the day to learn their fate. They received a score from 1 meaning very good to 3 meaning middling for each of nine subjects. A candidate receiving a score of 24 or more did not receive a teaching certificate.

Domer was interviewed for a position in Schoeneck, Pennsylvania. To complete the contract the interviewing board of six members asked him to "bring a bottle of whiskey and six glasses for us, and we will then close the deal." His contract provided that he be compensated $28 a month for a period of six months. He was also required to be his own janitor.

Domer's sixty students ranged in age from six to twenty and he seated them according to size. He diagnosed their needs by asking them to write their names and the name of the reader that they were in. "This showed me at once who were the writers," he said. "Some, who could not write, printed their names. The beginners were interviewed personally to get their names. These would be the ABC class."

Domer's daily program opened with Bible reading, repeating the Lord's prayer, and singing a familiar song. He worked with the beginners first. Then came arithmetic, reading classes, elementary and advanced grammar, geography, history, physiology, and finally three or four spelling classes. "The beginners recited three or four times a day," he said. "Altogether thirty-three classes were heard in about 310 minutes, an average of less than ten minutes to each."

Rules in Domer's classroom included no whispering, sharpening pencils, throwing stones, or name-calling. "They were to raise their hands when anything was wanted; they were to stand, pass, and be

seated, as I counted one, two, three, or tapped a small bell," he said. "The most ridiculous rule I made was that no German should be spoken on the playground at recess; and no swearing, either in German or English, would be permitted."

Domer attributed his most difficult problem to the community, which was Pennsylvania Dutch. The majority of children spoke either Dutch or German in their homes, and at school Domer drew pictures to teach English. "Thus my first three years were spent practicing what I thought was common sense in teaching, committing the rules of grammar, the rules of arithmetic and of spelling, and the location of every mountain and molehill in the United States to memory," he said. "I knew little or nothing of principles of pedagogy or laws of psychology, except the little gained from reading a few books. While pedagogy classes were offered in Normal School, I had not attended such an institution before beginning to teach."

Preparation of Teachers

Teacher D. S. Domer seemed to rue his lack of theoretical and pedagogical preparation for teaching; he obviously learned under fire. In contrast is the following excerpt from the journal of an apprentice teacher at the Worcester Normal School in Massachusetts: "This afternoon I gave the language lesson to the second grade as usual. I took up questions. The children gave them to me and I wrote them on the board. They seemed to take hold of this better than they did of declarative sentences. After they had copied the questions written on the board, some made up questions of their own and wrote them on their slates." Teaching methods were modified on occasion. Another normal school apprentice recorded this experience: "In the geography lesson we continued a review of the United States. When the children recited they did not do as well as when we began it Friday. I directed a lesson in grammar. I tried to make a point of having good order and succeeded in a degree. After the spelling lesson, as there was a few moments left, Miss H. said she would finish a fairy story the children had begun to read. I had to laugh to see the positions of some of the children as she read. Their necks were stretched out and they looked eagerly at her until she finished."

An important issue of the day was whether or not teacher candidates should practice in the public schools or in a model school. The Worcester students were apprenticed in the public schools where they applied their normal school theory under the supervision of the city superintendent of schools and the faculty of the Worcester Normal School. The students made systematic observations in a classroom and actually did practice teaching under the direction of the classroom teacher.

John Dewey discussed the practical and theoretical considerations for professional preparation in a 1904 article, advocating a teacher preparation program with five points:

—The teacher candidate should have scholastic attainments.

—The teacher candidate should have a period of observation to facilitate the teacher candidate's ability to perceive psychological development and reflect upon the educational program of a school as a whole.

—The teacher candidate should "assist" the regular teacher to transcend theoretical and psychological insight with practical management techniques.

—The teacher candidate should practice teach in a regular school (not a model school). The candidate should be responsible for the consecutive development of a subject field. Depth in one field vs. practice in a number of subjects is desired.

—The teacher should have a period of probationary teaching to weed out persons unfit for the profession.

By the turn of the century, apparently four basic types of individuals teaching in the schools of the nation had appeared. Some individuals were drawn to the profession by chance or to seek momentary economic gain, some were religious missionaries, some were individuals trained in the newly developed normal schools dedicated to developing the profession, and some were individuals classically educated in colleges and universities. This latter group, though culturally oriented for teaching, was not usually career oriented. Douglas Gold was an exception.

Schoolmaster Douglas Gold received a classical education at Waynesburg College in Pennsylvania. In 1914, with diploma in hand, he set out as a schoolmaster for the Blackfoot reservation

in Montana where his father was a missionary. Hired by the Bureau for Indian Affairs, Gold had language teaching problems. Although the BIA forbade the use of tribal languages in the schools, the schoolmasters were forced to find means to communicate. Gold learned to speak a little bit of the Blackfoot tongue and often assisted other teachers, as one incident relates. "I promised to come into the first-grade room," he said, "for a number lesson and see if I could help. When I arrived, Rosie, a fifteen-year-old Blackfoot girl, had arranged three little green chairs so that their backs formed a triangle. Over the chair backs she had draped a skein of yarn and she was walking gaily around the three chairs unwinding the yarn from the skein and onto a ball. I approached my job with at least a show of courage. I knew enough Blackfoot to tell the girl to stop and pay attention to me. . . . I saw that the three chairs would be good objects to count so I lifted one of them off the floor without disturbing the yarn. 'Rosie!' I said, holding up one finger and one chair. 'One—tockskum—one—one chair.' Rosie repeated carefully, 'one chair.'

"I picked up two chairs after receiving a nod of encouragement from the teacher (a Miss Andrews). 'Rosie, natock—natock—two chairs. Two chairs.'

"Very plainly Rosie repeated 'two chairs,' and I was delighted. This was progress in the Horace Mann devices. I picked up three chairs together.

" 'Neokskum, Rosie, neokskum. Three! Three chairs!'

"A great light illumined Rosie's countenance. She turned triumphantly toward Miss Andrews, assumed the appropriate patriotic stance for first graders, threw back her head and sang. Oh, how she sang, 'Three chairs for the red, white, and blue!' "

Although the reservation schools were similar to rural schools elsewhere, American Indian education failed dismally. An 1888 headline read, "A Practical View of the Indian Problem." The BIA schools recorded high absenteeism, high dropout rate and retardation. Gold's experiences with the Blackfeet attest to the dedication and professionalism of many BIA teachers. However, their preparation and pedagogical skills were not equal to the task.

Many Indian tribes, however, achieved high literacy rates with their own teachers, using their own languages. The Cherokees were a prime example. Cherokee teacher and historian Sequoya

invented a system for writing the Cherokee language. The Cherokees published their own newspapers and books and obviously were not "disadvantaged" in their own language and culture. Teacher Gold made a similar observation of the Blackfeet tribe

Changes in Methodology

Influenced by the normal school movement and the child study movement, the American teacher had changed. The instructional process was handled differently.

The teacher's use of questioning became more skillful. Questions were sequentially based to develop thinking. Extended knowledge of subject matter was needed by the teacher to become adept at questioning in each subject. Teachers were influenced by Pestalozzian methods of instruction and focused on object teaching or what Dewey called experiences. Teachers tried to use real objects in the classroom and began to consider motivation to keep children interested. To develop motivation, it became necessary to plan lessons in advance, and the teacher was emancipated from the textbook.

Public Concern and Support

Two new developments occurred simultaneously: A teacher retirement system was first instituted in New Jersey in 1896, and the first parent-teacher association, the National Congress of Mothers, was organized in 1897 in Washington. Public awareness and interest in the public schools and in the importance of teaching as a profession accompanied these movements. The profession received another boost when New Jersey passed the first teacher tenure law in 1909. Teacher tenure proposals were simultaneously greeted with public concern about the need to get rid of incompetent teachers.

The public was also deeply concerned about technical training, many believing schools should prepare students for a vocation. A national commission formed to study the need for vocational training concluded that seven million youth were representative of an untrained army needing vocational education. The commission declared that national prosperity was at stake and in

1917 Congress passed the Smith-Hughes legislation. Federal aid for vocational education assumed a new dimension. Some educational leaders protested that vocational education would perpetuate class conflict, that schools did not have the equipment or personnel available to train workers, that what was needed instead was basic understanding of a technological society. Dewey raised these issues in 1897. Seventy-five years later U.S. Commissioner of Education Sidney P. Marland, Jr. introduced the concept of career education. His supporters called the move an overdue reform to produce high school graduates with a salable skill. Marland said that vocational education was the core of career education.

Also during this era of industrialization and urbanization, increasing numbers of youth enrolled in high school, and the demand for more thoroughly prepared teachers grew. Frequently normal school graduates were deemed unsatisfactory for secondary school assignments. Gradually, in the last quarter of the 19th century, departments of education were created at universities to begin to graduate high school teachers with sufficient depth of academic training in their content fields. It would be many years before the universities would begin to approach the normal schools and teachers colleges in the number of teachers prepared. Indeed, until the 1970s, the total number of qualified teachers never caught up with the steadily growing school population.

1920-1945: BETTER TEACHERS, BETTER TEACHING

I promise to abstain from all dancing, immodest dressing, and any other conduct unbecoming a teacher and a lady.

"I promise not to go out with any young man except insofar as it may be necessary to stimulate Sunday School work.

"I promise not to fall in love, to become engaged, or become secretly married.

"I promise to remain in the dormitory or on the school grounds when not actively engaged in school or church work elsewhere."

As recently as 1936, female teachers in North Carolina affixed their signatures to this contract. The days of the schoolmaster had passed; female teachers outnumbered males in elementary classrooms. The transition from part-time teacher for winter or summer term to full-time teacher was slow and fraught with difficulties.

Academic vs. Professional Preparation

Conflict among teacher educators and between teacher educators and the public about preparation of teachers has been another recurrent historical theme. James Earl Russell, dean of Columbia University's Teachers College, writing in 1924, perceived a dichotomy between "academic" education and "professional" education. He defined academic education as "that type of work which leads the student to a constantly expanding knowledge of the subject," while professional education was "narrowing upon a particular task." Russell distinguished between an academically oriented teacher who asked what the subject would do for the student

and the professionally minded teacher who would ask what the student would do with the subject. Russell achieved a compromise between the "academically minded" or research-oriented professors at Columbia and the "professionally minded" professors who were field oriented, believing that both types of education were needed for the new teacher.

By 1935 most state institutions for teacher preparation had expanded the preparatory period for elementary teachers to four years beyond secondary education. The growth of high schools after the Kalamazoo decision in 1872 was followed by a trend to require teachers to be college educated. The rise of regional accrediting agencies, beginning in 1882, increased this pressure. By 1902, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools required that faculty of its member high schools be graduates of accredited collegiate institutions. It was assumed that the trouble with education was the brevity of teacher training. But George Counts blamed the quality of the experience and the lockstep approach to teacher education. He said that most teachers colleges were as alike as peas in a pod. He derided the lack of selectivity for teacher candidates exercised by the college, the lack of experimentation in training programs, unimaginative curriculum, and the under-utilization of master teachers to model appropriate teaching methods.

"The present oversupply of so-called trained teachers is a golden opportunity to cut the number of young people entering teacher training institutions to a relatively drastic minimum," Counts said. "Psychological science, personnel service, the experience of other professions upon this problem cry out to be applied.

"It is necessary to get completely outside the present teacher training picture and from a new vantage point to consider modern educational needs and modern teaching opportunities.

"The advanced academic education provided for prospective teachers can consist entirely of cultural material, especially selected and communicated, to promote mellow wisdom, imaginative vision, and a driving zeal—qualities sadly lacking in the average school teacher today.

"Until master teachers are placed in a key position in teacher training programs, no real progress in raising qualitative standards in the profession will be recorded."

In the decades between 1920 and 1950, illiteracy, rural education, immigrant education, and problems of black Americans aroused the public. During the depression years teachers struggled with reduced budgets and outdated teaching materials. Financial support was reduced, building programs were abandoned, and teaching loads and class sizes increased. The press censured teachers with articles titled, "Schools and Waste." Some teachers were forced to accept scrip in lieu of actual monetary payment. Teachers' loyalty was severely tested.

Teaching Skills Improved

Senora Jimenez began her teaching career in 1928 in a junior high school in Los Angeles and taught until she retired in 1953. She taught six periods of Spanish language, which she combined with Mexican history, geography, and culture in the days before it was fashionable to be a bilingual-bicultural teaching specialist. Her classes were sought by Mexican youth who needed to learn and perfect their own language and by Anglo youngsters seeking language fluency. Señora Jimenez was also the school sponsor for the Spanish Club, which met once a week after school.

Each class period began somewhat similarly, depending upon the students' competence. First the students sang. Often the song was "Cielita Linda," which was a favorite with the Señora. She would tell her students that they had to be happy and smile to speak Spanish. Next the students would be assigned a lesson to read. The reading would be oral so that the teacher could correct pronunciation. After the lesson was recited, Señora Jimenez would ask questions to test comprehension and expression, directing her questions to each student individually. Then the teacher would direct the students' attention to a map of Mexico and speak partly in Spanish and partly in English as she discussed history, customs, and problems of Mexican immigrants. She spoke, and encouraged the students to speak, as much Spanish as possible. She emphasized the influence of Mexico and Spain on California and the southwestern United States.

The class period concluded with a homework assignment which required students to memorize vocabulary lists, conjugate verbs, and memorize idioms. Every Friday the students were tested.

Señora Jimenez was dependent upon her textbook for the conduct of the class. Patterned practice and dialogues were unknown. Buzz groups, peer teaching, and modeling exercises as well as modern a-v equipment had not yet appeared in the language classroom. But the methods used by Señora Jimenez were far superior to those of the summer term schoolmarm in the early days before the Civil War.

1945-1975: EDUCATION TO SOLVE SOCIETY'S PROBLEMS

The great hopes generated during the 1950s and 1960s produced innovations designed to spark the ability of education to solve the problems of urbanization, multicultural societies, poverty, rapid growth, fiscal crises, and shifting world power.

The post-World War II baby boom brought ever bigger classes into schools, which were built rapidly. Teachers were at a premium until 1968, when the balance shifted and more teachers were available than there were teaching positions. Civil rights legislation forced administrators to search for black teachers to integrate white teaching staffs. Teachers became more powerful by organizing in unions or associations and in the 1970s began negotiating contracts with representatives of school boards. Busing for integration and Title IX forced many changes in student populations and in teaching staffs.

Headlines and feature stories ushered in each innovative idea such as team teaching, programmed learning, the instructional materials center, and educational television. Curricular projects, starting with the University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics Project in 1951, spread throughout the country. After mathematics, overwhelming amounts of new material were generated for bewildered teachers in the sciences, English, foreign languages, and social studies.

A Summary of the Features of Each Era

The dominant theme or influence of each era eventually pro-

vided direction for what teachers taught and what children learned. The goals of the program, in turn, determined the model that could be called the ideal teacher. That is, an effective teacher is one whose students can achieve the curricular goals.

Era	Dominant Theme	Distinguishing Features of Post Elementary Curriculum
Colonial Period to 1776	Religious	Latin, Greek, Bible, Arithmetic
Revolutionary War to Civil War	Political-Business	Mathematics, History, Geography, English, Grammar
Civil War to 1890	Practical-Labor	U.S. History, English, Composition and Literature, Modern Languages, Physical Sciences
1890 to Close of World War I	College Preparatory	English Literature, Composition, Grammar and Rhetoric, History and Geography, Biological and Physical Sciences
World War I to World War II	Mass Education	Social Studies, English, Science, Foreign Languages, Mathematics, Industrial Arts, Vocational Education, Business Education, Home Economics, Arts, Music, Health and Safety
Close of World War II to Bicentennial Year	Comprehensive	Consumer Education, Career Education, World of Work, Ethnic Studies, and Human Relations

Clearly teachers and teaching have improved considerably. Although schools in America have existed for almost 350 years, the distinctive American institution developed in the aftermath of the Revolutionary War. The American school and teacher shaped by social, economic, and political forces had responded to the needs of a changing and growing nation and attempted to provide as much education as possible for the children of the nation.

THE TEACHER OF '76

Competent teachers are identified in three ways: by personality and character traits, by the educational achievement of their students, and by teacher behaviors as they affect pupil achievement. Each of these approaches deserves attention.

Teacher Personality

First, consider teacher personality and character traits. Forty years ago Frank W. Hart compiled and analyzed opinions of 10,000 high school seniors to produce profiles of Teacher "A," the best-liked teacher, and Teacher "Z," the least-liked teacher.

Teacher "A" is described as being: helpful and willing to explain lessons and assignments; cheerful, happy, good-natured, jolly, and able to take a joke; human, friendly, and companionable; interested in and understanding of pupils; in control of the class, commanding respect; impartial and without "pets;" not cross, crabby, grouchy, nagging, or sarcastic; patient, kindly, and sympathetic; and fair and square in dealing with students.

Parents should have little difficulty in determining which teacher is best for their children when the personality profile of Teacher "Z" is compared to that of Teacher "A."

"Teacher 'Z' fairly leaped on each student and gave no one a long enough time to speak his piece." This student's quote sets the tone for the Teacher "Z" profile: too cross, crabby, grouchy, frowning, nagging, sarcastic, "flies off the handle;" does not explain lessons and assignments; has favorite students and picks on

certain pupils; superior, aloof, haughty, snooty, and overbearing; mean, unreasonable, intolerant, and "hardboiled;" unfair in marking and grading; and inconsiderate of pupils' feelings.

Perhaps that is enough to clarify the differences between Teachers "A" and "Z" where personality traits are considered. These differences become even more impressive as 80 percent of the "A" teachers were also considered to be the most effective, while fewer than 1 percent of the "Z" teachers could claim that honor. These personality characteristics will remain influential when teachers are selected to represent education's Spirit of '76.

The second identifiable component is related in the historical references to teacher accountability. Current performance-based programs have helped to popularize the term "criterion-referenced measures." But in the distant past, parents were often firm and clear in what they expected the schoolmaster to teach and their children to learn. Present forms of accountability, too, are often explicit.

Student Achievement

Objectives as assessed by criterion-referenced measures allow children to demonstrate that they can achieve a particular task or that they have gained specific knowledge. For example, one objective in a beginning typing class might require each student to reach a typing speed of thirty-five words a minute with no more than one error on a two-minute timed performance test. The teaching techniques and the educational philosophy, psychology, or learning style of the student are not of immediate concern. The teacher's effectiveness is measured only by the achievement of the stated goals by students in the class.

Criterion-referenced measures are not limited to motor skill subjects. Other subjects are also amenable to this treatment. A representative example might come from the objectives of a geography class. In this case, each student could be asked to identify and label each climatic region on a world map. The student should also be able to list for each region factors of precipitation, temperature, vegetation, and land forms. Higher order questions could be developed to elicit hypotheses regarding human activity. Again, teacher effectiveness would be measured on the basis of pupil performance.

The added dimension separating today's teachers from the past is professional knowledge of teaching and learning. Knowledge of how people learn is necessary to match a teaching style to a student's learning style, based upon philosophical and sociological influences. One hopes that progress will be made in the last quarter of this century.

The interim period will require teachers to apply professional knowledge as it exists today. Certainly, the knowledge and application of psychological principles of learning, teaching techniques, and appropriate curriculum must become a part of the repertoire of the teacher of 1976. When results cannot be minutely observed or precisely measured, the teacher must use an approach that will make students want to learn. For example, many critically important objectives in areas such as citizenship and health cannot be accurately assessed immediately, if in fact, they can ever be properly evaluated. In the case of certain citizenship objectives, one may need to wait several years to determine whether or not a student will be a good citizen. Adult voting records, contribution to or dependence on tax monies, and participation in community activities are the ultimate criteria for judging student attainment of goals, but they are not available while the student is in school.

If methodology and curriculum incorporate the application of psychological principles of learning, then it must be assumed that children will at least have a chance to acquire the desired knowledge or behavior changes.

One other essential competency of today's teachers is capability in research. They must be able to ferret out and interpret the literature of previous discoveries and apply that knowledge to their own research. Continual addition of useful professional knowledge is necessary to better answer questions about what to teach and how to teach it.

This research capability will also provide the backdrop for inquiry-oriented teachers of 1976 who retain in their minds the legacy of projects of the 1950s and 1960s. The movement from almost total emphasis on memory toward incorporation of some inquiry-oriented activities can be enhanced if students are taught by teachers who can think in those terms.

Levels of thought process necessary for research activities are the same ones children are expected to use when learning takes place. Cognition and memory levels have described for too long the limiting boundaries of students' thought processes. The teachers of tomorrow may be instrumental in helping children to reach higher levels of the entire process with both convergent and divergent or creative thought.

Beyond the Bicentennial Teacher

A new breed of teachers will emerge from this century with better resources and skills to meet expanded responsibilities. At last, teachers will be educated to respond to the needs of a multicultural society, to the handicapped, and to people of all ages who desire lifelong education.

Some educators predict that in the next few years the strongest pressures, with important implications for the education of teachers, will be:

—Demand for special education teachers.

—Demand for regular classroom teachers with special education skills.

—Increased number of day-care centers for children of racial and ethnic minorities.

—Inclusion of three- and four-year-olds into the public early childhood program.

—Provision for bilingual teachers and cross-cultural instruction.

—Increase in career education at all levels.

—Increase in technical and trade education.

—Expansion of community college programs for parents and other adults.

Obviously, education's Spirit of '76 must provide the backdrop for added skills and expertise. The teacher cannot expect to be fully qualified to teach when first signing a teaching contract. Preparation continues with inservice programs designed to assist both neophytes and veterans at the school site. The teacher will be able to demonstrate the personality traits, behaviors, skills,

and competencies learned during preservice experience and education but will also gain understanding of people of different cultures, different age groups, and different emotional and physical needs. This special knowledge is critical to success. Without it, the teacher can never hope to assist students to achieve their specific objectives or the overall general goals of the curriculum.

The teacher of the future will have other support in addition to specialized training and education. The teacher in the year 2000 will have access to the results of research now in progress. One area of research that may produce substantial assistance is the work being pursued in neurology.

The Spirit of '76 requires the teacher to be active outside the classroom. Teachers need to take initiative:

—To share responsibility for teacher education among districts, teachers, and educational institutions.

—To participate in developing credential requirements.

—To share decision making among students, administrators, and community.

—To draw upon community resource people for their classrooms, including direction of other adults' activities.

The evolution of the new teacher will take place as it has throughout history; a few individuals and groups will challenge the old ways, but previous approaches will persist until eventually new ideas have permeated the system. It may be helpful to evaluate programs about once every generation rather than expect sudden progress any one year. Improvement by gradual change may not be always apparent, but it repays patient work. A new way to educate teachers does not guarantee that results will be better, but how will better results ever be attained unless some new ways are tried?

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